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# THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF THE YEAR

(1903-1905)

BY

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## I

## EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF THE YEAR [1]

### 1903-1905

It is a difficult task to cut out a cross-section of a year in one of the great fields of human endeavor, and even where aided by the most powerful microscopes of inference and imagination, label this part progress and that failure. So difficult is it that, altho an added year of grace is permitted me by the non-presentation of a similar paper at last year's meeting, had I fully realized it someone else would have addressed you to-day. Evolution is a slow process; evolution in education one of its slowest forms. The field is so overlapped, its processes so involved and dependent, that all hope of traversing it crying *eureka* at many objective points is futile. The germ of the greatest educational movement of the century might lie within our vision undetected. I want, therefore, to preface this paper clearly with the statement that it is made up of facts and happenings of the last two years, chosen for their apparent importance but presented in a fragmentary manner. Many of the questions treated demand for proper analysis a discussion which would transcend the limits of the entire paper, but which must obviously be presented in suggestive outline. Many others are barely mentioned or omitted altogether. To the many friends both at home and abroad who have assisted in the presentation of the Report by their valuable suggestions, I wish to express my obligations; and particularly to Professor Sadler of England, Professor Lagerstedt

[1] Paper read before the National Council of Education at Asbury Park, July 3, 1905.

of Sweden, Inspector-General Gilles of France, and Director-General van Overbergh of Belgium, thru whose valuable and expert advice it has been possible to pick only those facts and tendencies in their respective countries which are of the greatest importance and lie clearly within the scope of this Report.

THE MOSELY COMMISSION

One of the most important events which has taken place in recent educational history is the visit of the Mosely Commission of England to this country in October, November, and December, 1903. The two reports which were the result of this visit, one made by the Education Commission and the other by the Industrial Commission, have created intense interest both in England and in this country, and are regarded here as an eminently fair and just criticism of the state of public education in the United States. Mr. Alfred Mosely, a Member of Parliament and a man prominent in the commercial and financial world of England, brought to this country twenty-seven educational experts to inspect and report upon various features of the educational and social life of the United States. Mr. Mosely frankly states that his inspiration for this unwonted enterprise was his admiration for the brilliant exploits of American engineers in the development of the diamond mines of South Africa some fifteen or twenty years ago. "The success of these engineers," he says, "turned my attention to the United States, and some years ago I paid my first visit there for the purpose of seeing what sort of country it was that was responsible for sending so many level-headed men to the Cape. . . . So far as I was able to ascertain the form of education given in the United States was responsible for much of its success, and I returned home determined if possible to get together a party of experts to visit the country and test the soundness of my conclusions."

The immediate opportunity, which was an additional incentive for Mr. Mosely to carry out his project, was the passage of the Education Act in England in 1902, and the possibilities which arose under it for the development of education along practical lines. He traced a similarity between education as

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controlled by the various States of our Union and the control vested in the counties of England under the new statute. There was thus added as a further motive the possibility of finding many things in our educational system which would prove of value to England.

The subjects of investigation placed before the Mosely Commission were: (1) The development of individuality in the primary school; (2) the social and intellectual effects of a wide distribution of secondary education; (3) the effect of specific instruction given in (a) business methods, (b) applied sciences, (4) the present state of opinion as to the value of professional and technical instruction of university rank, designed with special reference to the tasks of business life.

The Commission visited New York, Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New Haven, Boston, and Chicago, and at the latter place broke up as a body, and the individual members proceeded to every part of the country in search of information applying to their special fields.

The report of the Education Committee was published in 1904 and covers four hundred closely printed octavo pages. It is prefaced by a statement by Mr. Mosely, and contains a joint report signed by all the members of the Commission and a special report by each member of the Commission. In this report is expressed the belief that general education is of value both to the community at large and to the commercial, industrial, and agricultural service of the state; that in competing with American commerce Europeans will be called upon to face trained men gifted with both enterprise and knowledge; that the British public must be impressed with the absolute necessity of immediate preparation to meet such competition; that wonderful spirit animates both teachers and pupils in our schools, and that the absence of class prejudice and of religious difficulty serves to facilitate the work of the schools; that there is a very close connection between theory and practice, especially in the scientific field; that the important part which manual training is assuming in our public schools is of high value as an educational discipline; that in no country has there been such marvelous liberality displayed towards education both from public

and private sources; and that the entire work of education in elementary, secondary, and higher fields is organized and coordinated in such a way as to secure most harmonious working and avoid duplication.

Much frank criticism, in most cases well deserved, is mingled with the freely expressed admiration. Our teaching of foreign languages seemed to the Commission particularly slipshod and to partake of antiquated methods. Some disappointment was expressed that manual and industrial training does not seem to have played any great part in our commercial or industrial development. The answer to this criticism is under two heads: first, very few of our industrial schools and our manual training departments are over ten years old, which is altogether too short a period to exert any marked influence on industrial methods; second, the theory of public education in the United States is based upon the belief that our prominence in industrial and commercial work is due not so much to any form of special training in the arts and crafts as to the liberal training which is given to every child in our public schools. It is a safe rule of conduct that if a child is fitted during his eight elementary years for *anything*, he will be bound as a wage-earner to be fit for *something*.

It is impossible in this address to more than hint at some few of the points brought out in the papers of the report, or to state any of the conclusions. Every one of the twenty-seven papers is worth careful attention and study on the part of our educational public, and without in any sense seeming to discriminate at all, the reports submitted by Mr. Henry E. Armstrong, Mr. Arthur W. Black, Prof. T. L. Papillon, and John Rhys are specially valuable in their keen observation, just criticism, and valuable inference. Mr. Arthur W. Black sums up in three concise sentences as follows: "The great facts remaining with me as a result of my educational investigations in America are, first, that public opinion is much more strongly in favor of education than in this country. Second, that the scholars in America take a keener interest in their studies than is generally apparent here. Third, that the teaching given in the

elementary schools produces a mental alertness and readiness of mind to a greater extent than is secured in this country."

The reports are a pleasure to Americans because the tone is complimentary and because they concede in the premise the commercial and industrial supremacy of this country and seek to find in our educational system the reasons therefor. The reports are of value to Americans because they frankly present and criticise our shortcomings, and while the balance on the ledger is largely in our favor, a careful study of the debit side is of the utmost benefit to our educational public.

It would be extremely fortunate if in other fields than education

> There wad some Mosely the power gi'e us
> To see oursels as others see us.

## SCHOOL LEGISLATION

During the legislative period of 1904 there were over one hundred and twenty-five enactments in the various States affecting education, but nearly all of them were of such local or incidental character as not to call for special mention. Three important acts, however, in the winter of 1904, affected particularly State educational systems, and two in the winter of 1905 brought about most important reforms in city administration. The three relating to States were the new school codes of New Jersey and Ohio, and the so-called unification act of the State of New York. In the two former the changes made by the revised codes were so voluminous as to forbid anything like extended discussion here, tho in Ohio there were many radical changes, mostly in the direction of principles advocated by this Association.

The dual system of school administration, which had been the development of a century's growth in the State of New York, was abolished by the legislature of 1904. The University of the State of New York, established in 1783 and governed by a board of Regents, had supervisory powers over the colleges, universities, professional and technical schools of the State, and certain legally defined powers over the high schools and academies. The Department of Public Instruction, organized in

1812, placed under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of State in 1821 and reorganized in 1854, had control of all schools supported by public tax, including both elementary and secondary schools. By the law of 1904 the powers of both these great departments were merged in the Education Department; a new office with the title of Commissioner of Education created, and the Board of Regents reorganized. This law is purely a change in administrative details and does not affect in any degree the procedure governing either of the old departments. The law has been in operation now one year and its benefits thru increased efficiency in service, economy in expenditures, and uniformity of policy are universally conceded.

In April, 1905, as a result of long-continued agitation on the part of the Teachers Association, Public Education Association, and other organizations of the city of Philadelphia, the legislature of the State of Pennsylvania enacted a law in reference to cities of the first class. The bill is drawn on lines which are now believed to be sound in the administration of educational policies of cities, and contains many of the principles or provisions which are incorporated in the school laws of New York City, Cleveland, and St. Louis. The main provisions of the law are as follows:

(1) A five-mill tax for both the immediate and prospective needs of the schools, which will insure a sum under which the development of the city system will be rapid and effective.

(2) The minimizing of the powers of the sectional boards and the consequent lessening of the influence of the local ward heeler and the politician. The retention of these ward divisions was a concession to obtain the passage of the bill, and they will undoubtedly be abolished in the near future.

(3) The appointment of the members of the board of education at large by the judges of the Court of Common Pleas. While this is logically unsound in that it combines judicial and administrative functions, it is probably a better plan at the present time in Philadelphia than the plan of election by popular vote.

(4) Reduction of the size of the board from 42 to 21, a step

in the right direction, but a still smaller board would do better service.

Many minor provisions such as the definite fixing of responsibility, the centralizing of powers and duties, the appointment of responsible heads of executive departments, etc., are incorporated. The most serious omissions are the failure to provide a strict merit system for the appointment and promotion of teachers, and some indefiniteness in regard to the powers and duties which surround the office of superintendent. Most of these errors or omissions can be remedied by the first board of education, provided a progressive and broad-minded board is appointed. The general effect of the bill—while it may not meet the enthusiastic praise bestowed by one critic that it places the school system of Philadelphia fifty years in advance—is to give the city of Philadelphia a rational and defensible school system in line with modern educational policies, and a basis for a thoro and effective reorganization.

In April, 1905, the legislature of Massachusetts passed an act reorganizing the School Committee of Boston which will undoubtedly have a radical effect on the administration of school affairs in that city. The act is very short and substitutes for the present School Committee of 25 a committee of five, and bestows upon the latter all the powers, privileges, duties, and obligations devolving upon the present committee. The success of this law will depend entirely upon the personnel of the board. If five strong representative citizens are appointed to its membership, the school affairs of the city under the by-laws which they will adopt will be immensely improved. If a weak board subject to outside influences is appointed, their latter condition will be worse than their first. The powers of inspectors, superintendents, and supervisors are not mentioned in the act, but are left to the by-laws to be fixed by the new board of education. There is undoubtedly a great opportunity awaiting the new board, and probably in no city in the country is there greater likelihood of a board being appointed which will be able to meet it.

The laws of both Philadelphia and Boston have certain resemblances. Both are very brief; both reduce materially the

number of the board; both leave to the board the making of rules and by-laws to govern its own procedure; and both leave the board free to define the powers and duties of all its appointees.

### MORAL AND RELIGIOUS TRAINING

It is impossible to present by ordinary standards and statistics any measure of ethical or moral growth. It has no distinct schedule in any curriculum, but it should form the basis of every curriculum. Character building is the real aim of the schools and the ultimate defense for the expenditure of millions upon their maintenance. The moral sense of this country is felt to be in an unsatisfactory condition. This has been borne in upon our consciousness with slowly increasing and insistent force, made headway against unwilling attitudes of mind, and is now acknowledged as a serious menace to our social fabric. It manifests itself almost daily in new and surprising forms. The code of honor in business, were it not so full of menace to the peace of the public, would be a diverting study in tangential ethics. Practices are encouraged and methods tolerated which, not so many years ago, would have set their users outside the pale of business approval. The conscience of men seems divided into two parts,—a positive and a negative—the former controlling their social relations after office hours, and the latter in convenient use during business hours. The methods of high finance differ not one whit from the buccaneers of the Spanish main, except as the swing of the broadsword differs from the push of the electric button. The misuse of fiduciary funds, illegal combinations for trade and transit, and clever evasions of the spirit of the laws form the bulk of the news in our daily papers.

But why multiply examples when the tendency is marked in every walk of life, and nowhere more distinctly than in the youth and children of the present age. There is in their minds a flippant disregard for constituted authority; a lack of respect for age and superior wisdom; a weak appreciation of the demands of duty; a tendency to follow pleasure and interest rather than obligation and order. Such is the recognized condition

which demands the earnest thought and action of our leaders of opinion. The greatest sign of relief for the general situation is that the people are awake to the conditions and are agitating its remedy. Out of this are bound to come a healthier life and an intoleration of false standards. The question for schoolmen is how to assist by the proper training of the next generation of men of affairs. And I am going to say, at the risk perhaps of being misunderstood, that in my opinion much of the responsibility for the present attitude of mind of children, as indicated above, is due to the theory that a child must be "interested" in every phase of his school work or it is not good for him. Beginning with the kindergarten and continuing into the elementary grades, we have run a little wild in the last decade or more in making things easy for the child. We have coaxed and coddled and bribed with sweetmeats till the child has a totally wrong impression of his relativity to his environment. I yield to no one in acknowledging the great work done by the kindergarten, particularly in the crowded portions of our great cities, and in approving its purpose, but this does not mean approval of all its methods. They should not be extended too far into the child's life, and the elementary schools should begin to differentiate *at once* between work and play. A child has a weak, imperfect, illogical mind or he would not be a child. To appeal to his reason and his interest is to premise your work on negative quantities. Prescribe what *your* reason and the experience of the race have proven good for him, and see that he does his tasks thru love if possible, thru compulsion if necessary. If a subject be thoroly disciplinary and wholly distasteful, and a child does it, it is good for the child. And above all, let us see to it that we instill into the child by leading him to conquer difficulties, and to subordinate his desires to his obligations and his duty, a moral fiber which will carry him straight thru fire and water to his goal in life; and let us not be responsible for turning into the world creatures of flexible backbone who will pursue their sinuous way along the lines of pleasure, interest, and least resistance. This is too large a subject to be pursued further in this paper, but its proper solution will contribute much to the strength of our training in morals. It is only one

of the factors in the problem, but one which can be eliminated by the action of school authorities.

Against the material tendencies of the times, and the non-observance of moral obligation, many agencies are at work. As said before, the chief hope is the fact that the people are awake to the conditions. A recognized evil is more easily fought than one which works unseen and unappreciated. The work of the Religious Education Association has been rational and progressive, and its chief value is that it has been proved to be an agency thru which the exemplary but scattered efforts of a score of societies and bodies are given a unity and an organization which is accomplishing great results. The work of the Society should have the earnest support of every schoolman, for it means concerted effort and strategic disposition of force. The introduction of educational methods in the Sunday schools has been remarkable in its effects. As one writer states, "More has been done since February, 1903, to put the Sunday school on an educational basis than during the score of years immediately preceding." The promotion of intelligent Bible study has been the sole object of one Society; and the fact is being recognized among our colleges that a man to be educated must have as thoro knowledge of the Hebrew laws, literature, and customs, as of the Greek and Roman. It is not so much of a disgrace for a college student to be caught reading the Bible as it was in my day. The output of literature on this subject during the year is noteworthy, and an examination of its titles found in the bibliography of education published in the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW of June demonstrates the hold which the subject has upon the public and the methods which will be used to remedy the situation.

### SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ATHLETICS

Closely allied to this subject is the whole vexed question of school and college athletics, and the influence of the age is seen in the taint of professionalism which creeps into our student sports in spite of severe rules governing eligibility. The taint will continue until it is thoroly ground into our students, yes and even into the faculty and alumni advisory councils, that in-

tercollegiate games should be played for sportsmanship and not for victory; and that it is just as much a credit to lose as to win, provided you play a square game. Heroic efforts have been made in the last few years to draw up iron-clad rules carrying severe penalties, but the spirit of the old cry which used to govern the ethics of sport in at least a half-dozen institutions of the Atlantic seaboard, of "anything to beat Yale" can only be eliminated when college pride and spirit prefer an honest defeat to a questionable victory.

### DEPARTMENTAL TEACHING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The departmental plan of teaching, introduced into over 130 of the elementary schools of the City of New York during the last year, has attracted wide attention as the most comprehensive attempt to apply this principle to the public schools. It has been permitted at the option of the teachers in Boston and Chicago, and individual trials have been made in other places. It has been tried for two years in the city of Albany and the weight of opinion is favorable towards it, altho two years more of trial are deemed necessary to give a sufficient basis for comparison. An inquiry among the departmental teachers and the departmental pupils in the City of New York resulted in an almost unanimous opinion in favor of the plan. Its success is dependent, of course, on a large and thoroly organized corps of teachers, and it must therefore be confined to the larger cities. But where it can be introduced and be administered effectively, there would seem to be no reason why it should not be done. There is no more logic in a teacher's teaching all kinds of subjects than in a lawyer's practicing all kinds of law or a doctor's attempting to treat all classes of diseases. The age of the jack-of-all-trades has passed in our professions and vocations. Why continue it in the one profession which is the foundation of all others?

A careful inquiry into the results of this method of teaching was recently instituted by Mr. Kilpatrick, and some of the most noted advantages claimed from an educational standpoint are as follows:

(1) Expert teaching; the child is always under the control

of the teacher who is best qualified to teach any given subject. The teacher herself becomes highly proficient in the science of the branch, as well as in the best methods of teaching it.

(2) Improved discipline.

(3) Possibilities of more complete equipment in the way of special apparatus for the most effective teaching.

(4) Better distribution of time and continuity of work.

(5) Placing the responsibility directly upon the teacher for the advancement of the class in each subject of the grade.

(6) Economy of supervision, economy of time and equipment.

(7) The promotion of individuality thru placing greater responsibility upon each child and increasing his opportunities.

(8) Much greater interest in the subject on the part of the scholar when presented by an expert teacher.

(9) It is a step towards the individual development of the pupil which in the present day of routine class machinery is much to be desired.

### EDUCATION FOR THE INDUSTRIES

I choose this term because the term industrial training is invariably associated in the public mind with manual training, which is not all of what is meant. Education which trains for the work of the world, whether it be the arts, the trades, agriculture, mining, or commerce, is the subject which is engrossing more of public attention than any other in the educational field. The business and commercial world is asking in all seriousness if we cannot send out young men and women somewhat better fitted for business conditions. There is no question about the training of those who are to enter the professional and technical fields, but for the workers in the varied industries there is doubt. Social life in this country has grown from simple needs to the complexity of the highest modern civilization with all the entailed obligations. Our education has grown and expanded with it. When the applications of steam and electricity from 1830 to 1860 revolutionized the entire social structure, our education changed its form to meet the demands upon it. A revolution in industrial methods is going on to-day almost as

marked, and our educational machinery must be remodeled sufficiently to meet it. Stripped of all verbiage our country is getting too large, and our needs too complex, to train all children just alike. But the traditions and spirit of our country will not for a moment sanction the establishment, as in Europe, of two systems of instruction,—one industrial and one cultural; one for working classes and one for governing classes. Our solution of the problem is forced to be a combination course; the same for all children in earlier years, with all which that implies of hope and opportunity, containing enough manual training to benefit all, and an option in the higher years to afford the special training desired for the work of life. How to adjust our machinery to the demands and the conditions, the kind and the extent of schools to be instituted to meet the requirements, are our greatest problems to-day. The progress of the country under this heading is more in the general acceptance of the idea and the means taken to meet it than otherwise. A catalog extensive and striking could be made of the commercial and manual-training high schools established, the shop-work and practice courses introduced in the grades, the technical and trades schools instituted, and the departments of commerce organized in the universities; but it would be only cumulative evidence of the feeling abroad in the land. At the convocation of the University of the State of New York last week the entire program of two days was given to an intensive consideration of this topic and the ablest experts in the country addressed the meetings. Out of this agitation will come an adjustment satisfactory to our commercial and industrial development, and in harmony with our laws and traditions.

### HIGH SCHOOLS

The growth of high schools has been greater in the last two years than during any similar period since 1895. Four hundred and thirty schools have been established and the increase of students in attendance aggregates 43,595. Secondary education has seemed to recede from its two extreme positions and approach a more common ground. The former general and scholastic courses have been made more practical, and the

practical courses that have heretofore been somewhat narrow are being broadened by the introduction of cultural subjects. Manual-training high schools are being looked upon less as trade schools and more as a liberal-education process. An exception to this, and an experiment which involves to the extreme the parental control of the state, is the recent establishment of the Girls' Technical Training School in New York on the East side. It is designed to supplement the grammar-school grades by three years of instruction in dressmaking, millinery, stenography, bookkeeping, domestic science, etc., so that its graduates may at once find profitable employment in our shops. English, mathematics, geography, and United States history, some science, and a modern language, or science option, are the other studies. It is the first approach in this country at public expense to the *ecoles primaires superieures* of France, and while there is no doubt of its great practical value to a municipality like New York, its effect upon the educational policy of the United States will make it an object of close observation and interest.

The two- and three-year courses in commercial studies are being rapidly discontinued, and the four-year commercial course recommended by the committee of the Department of Business Education of this Association in 1903 has met with general favor, and many commercial high schools have been established with this course as a basis.

The Minnesota Agricultural High School has for its purpose to train students to become useful citizens as well as good farmers and housewives. The account of its development contained in Appendix B and C of the Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Rural Schools is worth careful study, as the co-ordination of the rural school, agricultural high school, and agricultural college undertaken by the State of Minnesota is pioneer work and is attracting wide attention.

RURAL SCHOOLS

The consolidation of country schools is growing in popular favor, and perhaps has no place in this paper other than to report progress, inasmuch as it has been previously discussed. But

the recent movement for instruction in the elements of agriculture in rural schools is a strong additional argument in its favor. The larger the school, the better the equipment for teaching agriculture; and, what is more important, the greater the chance of securing a teacher who is fitted to give instruction. The Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Rural Schools and Communities has just been placed in the hands of the members of this Association and is an interesting and valuable document. The general conclusions of the Committee are summed up in twelve findings, unanswerable in argument and conclusive in their reasons. I shall not give even a summary of these findings, as the entire report is on for discussion at this meeting. The report should be studied thoroly, however, as the first comprehensive document on a phase of education which promises great results, not only in the development of agricultural wealth, but also in holding young men to the occupancy of farms.

### EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH

The last two years have seen a remarkable growth in the educational activities of the Southern States. A continuous educational campaign has been prosecuted vigorously in nearly every Southern State. This campaign has been participated in not only by leading educators but also by prominent political leaders, and the appeal to the people for an increase in school taxes, the consolidation of school districts, and for general educational improvement, has borne fruit rapidly. The Southern Education Board and the General Education Board have co-operated cordially and effectively with the educational authorities of the various States, and their stimulating assistance has been appreciated by teachers and school officials. The organization of these Boards has been fully treated in the report preceding this and it is not my purpose to repeat it. The Boards came at a time when public sentiment was ripe for such a campaign as has been waged. College and University men have been foremost in their participation and the public press has lent most valuable aid. School improvement clubs and associations have been formed thruout the South, and education has become a rallying cry in political campaigns. The

determination of the South to educate all of its people, and its decision, in spite of poverty and other handicapping conditions, to do this as a business proposition and to do it at once is one of the most satisfactory occurrences of recent years. While for a long time the urban population of the South has had good public-school facilities, it must be remembered that nearly eighty per cent. of the population of the Southern States is rural. It is chiefly for the improvement of rural school facilities that this educational campaign has been waged, and the unparalleled growth in public sentiment, showing that the movement has the thoro support of the people, is one of the most interesting and gratifying educational facts of our time.

The time-honored Peabody Fund, established in 1867, is about to disappear as a distinct factor in Southern education, the trustees having determined to relinquish the trust, only the interest of which has been used heretofore, and dispose directly of the funds, amounting to about two and a half million dollars. One million dollars is to be given to the Peabody Normal College at Nashville, Tenn. The disposition of the remainder is as yet undetermined.

The gift of ten million dollars to the General Education Board made last week by John D. Rockefeller puts the work of that Board upon a solid basis for a century to come and establishes a reserve force in the field of education which may be thrown at will to strengthen any weak point in the line, North, South, East, or West.

### TEACHERS' PENSIONS AND CARNEGIE'S GIFT

The question of pensioning teachers on the theory that they are members in long and honorable standing of the civil service of the state and should receive grateful recognition upon retirement has been greatly strengthened in principle by the almost universal satisfaction over the recent gift of Mr. Andrew Carnegie of ten million dollars for the pensioning of college professors who have retired from work on account of old age or disability. It is too early yet to know the plans for distributing the benefits of this fund or to ascertain its limitations, inasmuch as the board of control has but recently been appointed. But if

this principle is sound in its application to colleges, it is equally sound as applied to elementary and secondary schools, and it may pave the way to a general agitation of the subject and acceptance of the idea.

The report of the Committee of the National Educational Association on salaries, tenure, and pensions, submitted for the consideration of this body at this meeting, states that hardly a beginning has as yet been made in the United States towards creating a system of pensions for teachers. In making this statement the committee emphasizes the distinction between a pension system properly so-called and the various schemes of mutual aid, retirement funds, or old-age stipends that have been organized and are maintained primarily by the teachers themselves and at their own expense. The United States seems to have fallen behind other nations in this respect, and Great Britain, France, and Belgium have more satisfactory laws providing for pensions to retired teachers. The report states that there is no commonwealth in the United States in which public-school teachers in all cities and counties are by provision of law pensioned upon retirement out of public funds. Local authorities have taken some notice of the subject within the last few years, but with the exception of New York, Detroit, and San Francisco, no municipality can be said to have a public pension system. The provisions in all other cities are based upon the insurance plan of deductions from teachers' salaries. The law creating a retirement fund in Greater New York, the sources of which fund are the moneys forfeited or withheld for absence from duty, the moneys received from donations, legacies, and gifts, and five per cent. annually of all excise moneys, was amended by the legislature of 1905 so as to exempt from levy and sale by virtue of an execution all pensions or annuities payable out of the public-school teachers' retirement fund.

The new school codes of New Jersey and Ohio both recognize the insurance principle in the creation of retirement funds. This question is one which will be much before the public during the next decade, and the report of the committee of this association is particularly valuable in the facts and deductions which it presents.

Correlative with this topic is the tenure of office of teachers. The principle should be recognized that security of position is of fundamental importance in order to secure faithful and efficient service from public-school teachers. A school force which is constantly shifting or liable to sudden change cannot produce the good results obtained under a permanent tenure. There is not the incentive for bright young men and women to enter the teaching profession that would prevail were the principle of permanency established. The reluctance of men to enter the teaching profession and the general uneasiness of those who are engaged in it are largely due to this fact. The advocacy of tenure of office for all teachers during competency and good behavior, after they have first served a satisfactory probationary period, was the basis of a bill introduced into the New York legislature last winter, but for the passage of which public opinion did not seem ripe. This is about the state of affairs which exists in all parts of the country. The report of the United States Commissioner of Education made public in 1904 contains an investigation of the length of service of teachers in cities of 8000 population or over, which shows that in 379 cities or towns out of the total of 545 exceeding this limit of population, 50 per cent. of the male teachers have been engaged less than 13 years, and 53 per cent. of the female teachers less than 10 years.

### TEACHERS' SALARIES

Considerable progress has been made in the last few years in the matter of teachers' salaries, and the report of the committee on teachers' salaries, tenure, and pensions just submitted to this Association gives an abundance of figures and the necessary available data for the consideration of this subject. The principle at issue needs no discussion here, but the statement can be safely made that there is a general disposition to advance the salaries of teachers in the public schools of the United States, tho it is not in proportion to the increased cost of living or to the advanced requirements for the certification of teachers. Most of the larger cities have adopted a fixed salary schedule providing for minimum and maximum salaries for each position and a regular yearly increase. These schedules

are as diverse as can be imagined, and seem to be based rather upon the opinion of the local authorities than upon either the size of the city or the purchasing power of a dollar in that community. The variation in the salaries of similar positions in cities of the same relative size is sometimes startling in the extreme. In some cases the difference is due to the personality of the occupant of the position, but in most cases to the variable quantity known as boards of education. Minimum salary laws, correct in principle and indicative of a desire to deal justly with the situation, have recently been passed in Indiana, Maryland, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania.

The deductions and inferences from this interesting report would fill a volume, but can have no further place in the résumé I have attempted. The chief sign of progress is the general favor with which the attempt to improve the salaries of teachers has been received by the people in general. The recognition of the principle that it saves money to the public to pay for expert service will do more to further the progress of popular education in this country than any other one item. One of the keen observers accompanying the Mosely Commission stated that the people of the United States spend a marvelous amount of money on their public schools, but that the salaries of teachers are not sufficient for the service the country desires or should have; that the money lavished on the schools goes to buildings or equipment which are on a much more generous scale than in England, but that the teachers—the living force of the schools—are kept short.

The raising of the Harvard endowment fund to yield an annual income of one hundred thousand dollars, to be applied to the increase of the salaries of the professors, is a notable event of the year and indicates the general feeling on the question. Similar funds are now being raised by the alumni of other colleges.

### THE BACCALAUREATE AND PROFESSIONAL COURSES

The last two years have seen the adoption of many experiments—I use the word rather advisedly—in the direction of a shorter combined baccalaureate and professional course. In the

face of the increasing demands of the professional schools, and with opportunity for almost unlimited laboratory research, this shortening has been done at the expense of the college course. The policy of Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, and Chicago has been in this direction. The last revision of the curriculum of Columbia, voted in January, 1905, to take effect next September, is the most radical step thus far adopted, and at the same time the most defensible. It has the merit of entire frankness, and of logical reasoning, even if we don't agree with all the premises. The requirements for graduation are 124 points, each point meaning satisfactory completion of work requiring attendance one hour a week for a half year. After a student has obtained 72 points he is at liberty to take up work for the remaining points in any of the professional schools of the University except law, which requires 94 points. A brilliant student can make 72 points in two years. The average student will make 60 points. It becomes possible, therefore, by hard, persistent, and thoro work, to win the two degrees in six years; it is quite possible to do it in six and one-half years; and not difficult to do it in seven years. The student may make up his mind at the end of two or two and a half years whether he will pursue the college course for the full four years, or whether he will take advantage of the shortened time to gain his professional degree.

The other changes which accompany this scheme are the adoption of semi-annual admissions and graduations which come from making the half year the unit of credit, and the establishment of a program of studies for the degree of B. S., which does not require Latin; a regulation preventing those whose work is consistently poor in all courses from receiving a degree, and a further regulation to prevent browsing about the course which prescribes that at least nine points must be under some one department. Quoting from a résumé of the new program by Professor Thomas, "the expectation is that the new program of studies will prove especially attractive to students who may wish to obtain a college education before entering one of the schools of technology or applied science. . . . To avoid duplication the college should gradually gather into its

jurisdiction all those fundamental disciplines which are at once important in general education and necessary for particular lines of professional study. The professional schools will then be able to confine themselves more closely than now to strictly professional instruction."

This program will undoubtedly be watched with great interest and will be the basis of many discussions and conclusions.

Under the auspices of the Education Department of the State of New York, efforts have been made the past year to establish a medical elective course in the last two years of the arts colleges of the State which will be accepted by medical schools as an equivalent of one year of medicine. It has progressed to the point of outlining the course, an expressed willingness on the part of several colleges to adopt it, and of two medical schools to accept it. This arrangement will earn the baccalaureate and medical degree in seven years.

There has, however, been noticeable during the last two years a strong reaction against the tendency to shorten the college course, and from the papers and discussions which have been contributed during this period it is evident that there has been a return to the distinct work of the American college as such. This is accentuated, and the work of the small college strengthened by Mr. Carnegie's recent statements concerning contemplated action, and the gifts of D. K. Pearsons to numerous small colleges in the West. President Hadley in his article in the *Century Magazine* for April, 1905, puts the matter in an unanswerable form which should be studied by everyone interested in this phase of our educational life. This article, which is based upon the statement of a French scholar that the bachelor's degree is a social rather than a pedagogical institution, and in which he demonstrates that the college course is valued not solely or primarily for its studies but rather for its associations, concludes as follows:

"Time alone can show whether the idea of allowing a student to develop his professional activity at as early a period as possible, but postponing to as late a period as possible the narrowing of his sympthies and the lessening of his points of contact

with men outside of his profession, is a practical or an impracticable one.

"While we are waiting for this question to be decided, we shall probably see two sets of experiments going on in different universities. In those which are connected with our large cities where the work of the professional school counts for more and the life of the college for less, we are likely to see a tendency to shorten the college course—a tendency to make a sharp line of demarcation between the studies of that course and the professional studies which are to follow it, and to disregard or undervalue the social adjuncts which a college course carries with it. In smaller places and among institutions which have a more distinctly collegiate atmosphere, we may expect to find these tendencies reversed,—to see an effort to maintain the college course in its integrity and include within it as much as possible of preparation for the actual work of life,—in the belief that the gain to American institutions and American citizenship resulting from the contact of different types of men with one another will be strong enough to resist the tendency of such a college to disintegration and valuable enough to compensate for any difficulties and losses which the prosecution of such a plan involves."

Prophecies are presumably out of order, but there are indications that undergraduate work will eventually be entirely separated from the distinctive university courses, and all work preparatory thereto left to secondary schools and colleges.

### ENTRANCE TO THE PROFESSIONS

Material progress has been made in the last two years in establishing legal provisions in the various States guarding the entrance to the professions of law, medicine, dentistry, veterinary surgery, nurse-training, and public accounting. The necessity of maintaining relatively uniform standards in the various States is now recognized sufficiently to induce legislative action. The State of New York leads in her elaborate code governing all of these professions, and the laws of other States are usually based upon the New York statutes. The Southern and far Western States are still slow to act.

In law, the State of Missouri has established a State board of examiners and a preliminary education equivalent to a grammar-school course.

In medicine, reciprocity provisions for indorsing other State licenses have been passed in Georgia, Iowa, Missouri, and Wyoming. Medical acts have been revised in South Carolina, Kentucky, Vermont, and Wyoming.

In dentistry, State boards of examiners have been created by Kentucky and Wyoming; Mississippi requires high-school education or its equivalent as a preliminary to the examination.

In pharmacy, New York has made eight years in elementary schools and one year in high school a prerequisite to entering a school of pharmacy. Pennsylvania has become the second State requiring a diploma from a reputable pharmacy school for admission to licensing examinations.

In veterinary medicine, Maine and Missouri have established State boards of examiners, and New York has raised the entrance requirement of veterinary colleges to a four-year high-school course, or its equivalent, placing this profession on a par with medicine and dentistry.

In nurse-training, Maryland has created a State board of examiners, and the equivalent of a high-school course and diploma from a training-school is required for registration.

### UNIVERSITY SUMMER SCHOOLS

The last two years seem to have marked perceptibly the passing of the summer school of methods and the growth in public favor of the university summer school. This is a distinct step in advance, inasmuch as it substitutes for the spasmodic efforts of diverse agencies, a regular curriculum maintained by a responsible organization. The growth of the university summer schools is phenomenal and teachers are patronizing them to a remarkable degree. A number of cities have made it a financial or professional advantage to the teachers who attend university summer schools. Several cities give specific advances in salary to the teacher who brings a certificate of achievement; others allow several points toward professional examinations for the winning of similar credentials.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY, AN INTEGRAL PART OF OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The public library as an educational force is beginning to be much more thoroly understood and used. If civilization is to advance and free institutions be insured, there must be intelligence on the part of the people and due regard paid to the constant improvement of the individual. The school does not hold the child any great length of time. The average term of instruction per pupil for the whole country is now about 5.17 years, and an additional means of instruction must be provided at public expense. When school days are over there is no agency but the public library to efficiently take the place, and for busy men and women it is the only opportunity for larger information and for self-education, which is in reality the broadest and best education. The highest civilization is that which lives together in mutual helpfulness. It means to each citizen a source of help, comfort, and protection, each giving according to his power and each acquiring according to his deserts. An ignorant and unenlightened people cannot live such a life as this. Small men and women cannot enter into it. There must be breadth of horizon and largeness of outlook, grounded in information, intelligence, and character. The common school has thrown wide the door of opportunity, and its work must be carried to completion by the public library. That this is realized by the public is amply demonstrated by the remarkable increase of public libraries and the growth and extension of its principles. Five hundred and six library gifts in the United States for the year ending May 31, 1904, the latest figures available, are reported at $6,103,137, of which nearly one-fourth was given by Mr. Carnegie. He has given during the last fifteen years nearly forty millions of dollars to establish 1350 libraries. The appropriation for the City of New York for current library expenses for the year 1905 was $634,393. The free circulation of books in the City of New York for 1904 was 6,339,190, and for the State of New York a grand total of 11,347,802. Accurate statistics are not available from other portions of the country, but in twenty-three States there are

State library commissions, or departments, to promote the establishment of public libraries and to assist them in maintaining high standards of usefulness. The number of free libraries is rapidly increasing from year to year, and, in the light of its supplementary function to the public-school, library growth is one of the brightest signs of the times.

### SPECIAL EDUCATION

Special education—a term which I have never liked, seemingly coined to avoid the use of the word "defective" and which has always to be defined as education applying to children defective in some measure—has made a wonderful advance during the last two years, particularly in two ways: First, a growing appreciation and practical acceptance on the part of the public that it is as much a part of the duty of the state to provide free education for children defective in any respect as for those who are normal; this is evidenced by increased interest and increased appropriations for the maintenance of schools for special instruction. Second, the great increase in the number of manual-training courses in schools for the deaf and dumb, blind and feeble-minded children, whereby they are not only trained to be mentally more alert, but often lay the foundation of a trade which will support them during life. In connection with the Ohio School for Feeble-minded Youth, there has recently been established a custodial farm of sufficient acreage to give employment to the adult feeble-minded of the State in such a way that the sexes are entirely separated, not only from each other but from society at large. In the courses of study for the blind there has been introduced a great amount of nature-study, by which the sense-perception is being greatly increased and a knowledge of the outer world more closely brought to the mental sight of the child. At the St. Louis Exposition there was on exhibition a group of 358 specimens of insects gathered, classified, and mounted by blind pupils, the only aid given being that which was rendered by ordinary children in catching the specimens. If this increased study in nature-work will aid to cultivate in the blind a habit of exact thought in the place of the irregular emotions which

have hitherto characterized this class of children, it will be a distinct step in advance.

A resolution passed by the American Medical Association in New Orleans, in May, 1903, asking that measures be taken by boards of health, boards of education, and school authorities and, if possible, legislation be secured looking toward an examination of the eyes and ears of all school children, has been adopted by the Mississippi Valley Medical Association, the American Public Health Association, and over twenty State medical associations. In about thirty cities of the country formal tests of the sight and hearing are maintained by official medical inspectors, and in a number of municipalities medical inspectors are appointed by the public-school authorities to test not only the sight and hearing but other organs of the body. This guardianship of the health of children is producing remarkably good results.

In many of our cities also special classes are formed for the training of children, more or less abnormal, who with proper care can make greater intellectual advance. These classes are always small and in charge of a teacher specially fitted for the delicate work.

### COMPULSORY EDUCATION AND JUVENILE COURTS

The feeling of responsibility on the part of those carrying on the affairs of the state for the education of the young is increasing. There is a greater appreciation of the child's rights to an education and an insistence upon parents sending children to school up to the full age limit. The compulsory education laws have been amended in many States with this end in view. Children's courts have been established in many cities and truants and incorrigibles carefully supervised and placed where they can secure a good elementary education. Notable juvenile courts are those conducted by Judge Lindsay of Denver, Judge Tuthill of Chicago, and Judge Stubbs of Indianapolis.

### SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION

The measures for adapting the public-school system to the varied conditions of a great urban population are significant

features of our social and economic progress. Various forms of continuation schools for those who are employed during the day are being established in all the large industrial cities. The educational centers for working people in Boston, the evening School of Trades in Springfield, and the great number of evening schools in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago are instances in point. These schools teach a range of subjects almost as wide as the day schools, tho leaning strongly to the practical. The attendance of recently arrived immigrants at these schools is noticeable and significant. The use of the public schoolhouses in the evenings as social centers, for popular lectures, for parents' meetings, and for study clubs, begun in the larger cities, is rapidly being adopted in smaller cities and industrial towns, and brings a double return to the community for the investment in educational equipment.

The humane as well as educational principle involved in maintaining vacation schools in crowded cities where children can find recreation as well as instruction in manual training, gymnastics, and athletics is reclaiming thousands of boys and girls from street life and turning gangs of embryo toughs into normal trained men and women. The public-school gymnasium and playground is recognized to be as potent a factor in modern school training and upbuilding of character as can be employed. For this reason one of the most notable events of the school year just closing is the appropriation of one million dollars for the purchase and the equipment of playgrounds in the tenement districts of New York and Brooklyn. Three hundred thousand dollars was also appropriated for purchasing three athletic fields for the use of the pupils of the greater city. It is money well spent. Nearly every city in the United States of one hundred thousand inhabitants maintains vacation schools. The great development in the last five years has been due to New York's action in taking over the schools formerly conducted by the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and its great need has led to the prosecution of the work with corresponding vigor.

THE EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION

A paper of this nature would not be complete without reference to the educational exhibits of the Universal Exposition held at St. Louis in 1904, in which exhibit thirty-three States and Territories and twenty-two foreign countries participated. At the same time there may be a doubt as to whether this display comes under the head of educational progress. It was rather an objective summary of the world's educational status at that date, brought together for the purpose of comparison and study. It has already been thoroly discussed in the educational press and on educational platforms, and the lessons taught by the orderly and systematic arrangement of the prominent features of the educational systems of nearly every civilized country have been thoroly emphasized. It is too early to assert that it has influenced any important movement and almost too late to again repeat that its suggestive influences have penetrated, thru the thousands of teachers who visited the Education building, to every quarter of the globe. Unique in the position of being the concrete form of the science, the theory of which the entire Exposition was designed to emphasize, the exhibit stands as a monument to mark the recognition of the fact by a new nation, that education is the practical basis of the social and industrial life of a country.

*The Congress of Arts and Science*

The most notable gathering of men of letters, arts, and science which has ever taken place in the history of the world was the Congress of Arts and Science held under the auspices of the St. Louis Exposition in September, 1904. It was a gathering remarkable for its cosmopolitan membership, its emphasis of the fraternity of scholarship, for the personnel of its participants, and for its magnificent contribution to the scientific thought of the world. The Congress was conceived in the desire to depart from the routine of international gatherings common to Universal expositions, and was the result of much thought and wide conference on the part of the authorities of the Exposition. The plan grew out of the idea that the sub-

divisions and multiplication of specialties in science had reached a stage at which investigators and scholars might derive both inspiration and profit thru a general survey of the various fields of learning, planned with a view of bringing the scattered sciences into closer mutual relations. The central purpose was the unification of knowledge, an effort which seemed doubly appropriate on an occasion when the nations were bringing together a comprehensive exhibit of their arts and industries. In these days when mind is concentrated on atoms, when the narrow field of the specialist is all too wide for the life work of our keenest intellects, a discussion of the broader relations of the sciences, their interdependence on each other, and their influence on the destinies of the race was felt to be worth the trial. It might lead to generalizations, in which this age is remarkably deficient.

The opening of the Congress on September 19 was followed on Tuesday forenoon by addresses on the main divisions of science and its applications, the general theme being the unification of each of the fields treated. These were followed by two addresses on each of the twenty-four great departments into which knowledge was divided. The theme of one address in each case was the fundamental conceptions and methods, while the other set forth the progress during the last century. These addresses were delivered by Americans, making the work of the first two days the contribution of American scholarship.

On the third day, with the opening of the sections, the international work began. One hundred and twenty-eight sections were held in the four remaining days of the Congress, at each of which two papers were read,—one by a foreigner, the other by an American,—the theme of one being suggested by the relations of the special branch treated to other branches; the other by its present problems.

A glance at the personnel of the speakers proves conclusively that never before have so many leading exponents of various learning or so many leading scientists been brought together for a common purpose. The papers, which in nearly every instance by their very high plane of scholarship showed a full appreciation of the importance of the occasion, are now being

published in eight volumes by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. of Boston, and will embody a contribution to scientific literature which will mark the St. Louis Exposition long after the record of its material achievements has faded from the minds of men.

EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

Within the last two years the literature of the profession has broadened and deepened and some really noteworthy books have been published which indicate that within a reasonable time we need not be ashamed of comparison with other professions. The bibliographies published by the EDUCATIONAL REVIEW in June, 1904, and June, 1905, give forty-three titles of books that should be in every large library and be accurately known to all students of education. With no intention of discriminating, a half-dozen of these should be specially mentioned as widely read and favorably received works: such are Horne's *Philosophy of education*, Thorndike's *Educational psychology*, Brown's *Making of our middle schools*, Coe's *Education in religion and morals*, Carpenter's *Teaching of English*, and Hall's *Adolescence*, easily the greatest book on the subject ever presented.

MISCELLANEOUS

Space forbids extended treatment of many features worth presenting, but their mention will carry full appreciation to this audience: noteworthy are: (*a*) a growing tendency in the Eastern States to support from public funds the higher forms of education; extension of trade schools under private auspices and in institutions maintained by private bequests, where plumbing, metal-working, carpentry, painting, etc., are taught; (*b*) ... ging relief in close grading plans such as obtain in Chicago, St. Louis, Elizabeth, Batavia, Cambridge, in contradistinction to the old mechanical grading; (*c*) reaction from the belief that spelling can be learned incidentally as one learns to walk, and a liberal reaction from older methods of teaching history and geography, where lessons were memorized, to the newer forms of teaching which require the pupils to understand what they are studying; (*d*) the leading place given to English in the elementary schools and efforts towards a more

rational plan of teaching English in the high schools. Arithmetic is no longer given twice the amount of time allowed to any other subject, altho its importance is still recognized; (*e*) the constant raising of the standard of entrance to the teaching ranks and the rapid development of departments of education in colleges and universities. Correlative to this is the growing demand for none but college- and university-trained teachers in high schools, while normal-trained teachers are in demand for the grades and the rural schools; (*f*) a gradual but inevitable transference of purely educational functions from boards of education to professional administrators; appointment of teachers on the merit plan, transfer of teachers and pupils, graduation of pupils and other details of management generally have been given over to the superintendent; (*g*) close attention to schoolhouse architecture and the immense improvement in the equipment of school buildings, particularly in reference to gymnasiums, baths, roof-playgrounds, elevators, workshops, and kitchens; (*h*) the work of the Agricultural Department of the government, supplemented by the work of the agricultural colleges and experiment stations in applying the results of scientific investigation to agriculture, horticulture, stock-breeding, floriculture, and the like; (*i*) the investigations and discoveries of Luther Burbank in the improvement and development of fruits, flowers, and vegetable food products, especially the development of a spineless cactus, which can be produced in almost limitless quantities in arid climates and which will add materially to the food production of the world.

### INSULAR EDUCATION

*Porto Rico.*—No changes have been made in the school system as a whole or in the policy of the Department to lay emphasis upon the work of the common schools of primary grade. As a rule children enter these schools at the age of five or six and remain about three years, the vast majority by reason of their poverty not being able to remain longer. The town schools have a carefully graded eight-year course. The principal hindrance to the more rapid development of educational matters on the island of Porto Rico seems to be the lack

of funds, and unless Congress takes special action on the matter little relief is likely to come. The burdens of taxation are now as severe as the limited resources of the island can meet, and much as the improvement of the schools is desired by the people it is considered unwise to tax them further for this purpose. Whether Congress can find any means of relief for the situation is doubtful, but a policy should be inaugurated which will give to every child in Porto Rico an opportunity to attend school, instead of the accommodations being limited as at present to about 70,000 children or one-fifth of the population of school age.

There are at present employed in the common schools 1265 teachers, of whom 139 are Americans who devote most of their time to the teaching of the English language. The average enrollment per school has increased over 25 per cent. within the last two years. The eight-weeks trip of 540 Porto Rican teachers to the United States and to the summer schools of Harvard and Cornell, during the summer of 1904, is considered successful from every standpoint. The object of the trip was to give the teachers a strong stimulus in the study of the English language and a clearer idea of American life and institutions and of American history and geography. Congress refused to do more to aid the scheme than to provide transportation, and the remaining amount required, which was practically $100 per person, was contributed nearly half by the teachers and the remainder by private subscriptions in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia.

The University of Porto Rico was established in March, 1903, and with it was incorporated the insular normal school, located at Rio Piedras. This normal department of the University was the only department in operation at the time of the organization of the University. The main object is the establishment of professional schools, particularly in law, medicine, and engineering. Teachers' institutes have been inaugurated during the past year, and the programs of the meetings and the appointment of inspectors are carried on from the Department.

*The Philippines.*—The reaction and indifference to the edu-

cational policy of the United States government which existed in the Philippines two years ago have now almost entirely disappeared thru the strenuous measures adopted by the Bureau of Education. Provinces such as Misamis, from which the division superintendent and all insular teachers and all supplies were withdrawn, have come fully to realize the value of the education proffered and the fact that its being a free gift should not cause it to be lightly considered. The realization that education was not to be forced upon the people but rather was an opportunity which they should not fail to grasp, has seemed to be the controlling element in the change of attitude.

The chief points of progress in the Philippine schools, which have been carried on under the policy first established by the government, have been almost entirely in the matter of administration of increased revenue. The status of the division superintendents under the civil service has been fixed and the minimum salary placed at $1600. These salaries are also no longer made with reference to the respective political divisions, but the superintendents may be assigned to duty in any part of the archipelago. Promotions have also been arranged for on the merit basis and the teachers included in the classified civil service. This gave rise to some confusion at first, but satisfactory and equitable adjustments have been made and the law at the present time is popular. Provision has also been made for meeting the expenses of American teachers assigned to visit the *barrio* schools.

The chief features of the policy of the Bureau have been summarized by the Superintendent of Education as organizing and placing, under competent supervision, primary instruction within reach of every child in the Christian provinces; the training of a sufficient number of Filipino young men and women as teachers; organizing in every large municipality an intermediate school for continuing the work of the grades and giving efficient practical instruction in industrial training; the establishment of provincial high schools; the developing of the three technical schools already established.

The passage of the Internal Revenue Act of a year ago, which

devotes five per cent. of the entire revenues to the municipal school funds, has been of immense advantage to the educational situation and has permitted the employment of many hundred additional teachers at fair salaries. The actual attendance in September, 1903, upon the common schools was 182,282 pupils. In October, 1904, the grand total was approximately 364,000. This tremendous increase in one year is due not to the enforcement of any compulsory education act, but to the more complete realization on the part of the Filipino people of what the education introduced by the American government stands for and the opportunities it affords their children. The experiment of planting the ideals of American democracy among an Asiatic people seems to be meeting with more abundant success than was anticipated two years ago, and in the minds of the officials of the government the successful termination of the reactive period and the evidence of increased interest and attendance are positive proof of the ultimate justification of the American policy.

## FOREIGN EDUCATION

It is impossible in a review of this nature to go into minor details in foreign education, or do more than select here and there some features which seem to be worthy of note. This is all that has been attempted and in no case is there a discussion of foreign systems. Many important countries are untouched because their work seems to be the normal progress of policies adopted prior to the period covered in this address. I should like this borne carefully in mind in criticising the faults of omission and commission existing in the Report.

### *France*

In the field of higher education a decree which took effect November 1, 1904, united the Superior Normal School to the University of Paris. The normal school preserved its administrative and civil personality, the Director and assistant becoming members of the Council of the University. The teachers of the normal school became members of the faculty of science and letters. The scientific instruction is given by the Uni-

versity, and the professional instruction by the normal school with a course in the lyceums. Two courses, one of letters and one of science, are maintained, each three years in length. The students are matriculated in the University, and in short the relation is almost exactly the same as that of the Teachers College to Columbia University in this country. The policy of placing the training of teachers for the higher schools under University direction is parallel with recent developments in our own country, and the direct influence of the American system is acknowledged in the reorganization in France. The changes are made in the expectation of securing a more equitable distribution of the scholarships, the number of which will depend upon the funds available in the budget, and of obtaining a higher grade of teachers in the secondary schools of France. In the discussion of these changes, M. Croisset, Dean of the Faculty of Letters of the University of Paris, asserts in commenting on the importance of Latin composition as compared with the Latin theme, that Latin has ceased to be what it was formerly, a scientific international language.

In secondary education the chief modifications have been in the plan of studies, programs, and examinations for the baccalaureate. In the lyceums the total duration of hours of class work and of study has been reduced to nine hours for students under 16 years of age and to seven hours for those under 12. No class period must exceed one hour except in the higher courses. The modifications of the French secondary school system are suggestive of the American plan as exhibited in Paris during the Exposition of 1900. The former modern and classical courses, differing by one year, have been revised, and instead of two distinct lines of study, two cycles have been adopted, the first of four years, from the sixth to the third inclusive, in two divisions, differing by having Latin as the basis for one, and French and other modern languages for the other. The second cycle, comprising three years, is divided into four sections: (a) the Greek-Latin, (b) the Latin and modern languages, (c) the Latin-science, (d) the science and modern language, all quite analogous to the four courses of the American series leading to the degree of arts (B. A.), the

degree of philosophy (B. Ph.), the degree of science (B. S.) and the degree of literature (B. L.).

In elementary education the chief problem has been the amelioration and improvement of the teaching force. No one may become a teacher in the public elementary schools without holding a normal-school certificate testifying to pedagogic ability and granted after having passed three years at least in a normal training school for teachers. The chief anxiety is concerning the question of men teachers. The recent financial law passed April 22, 1905, has increased the salary of teachers in the elementary schools, and the new military law of 1905 contributes to the increase of men teachers by permitting an exchange of military service for a five-years contract in teaching.

The suppression of the congregations still continues a matter of strife between the lay spirit and the clerical. The law of July 6, 1904, presents six articles, all of which are interesting but which cannot be presented here in extension. The first forbids instruction of all kinds and nature to the congregations of France within a maximum limit of ten years. The second decrees that congregations that are exclusively teaching bodies shall not enroll new members and only those that are foreign may continue their course. The third determines on the closing of the institutions within at least the ten years. The fourth provides for public announcement of the closed congregations in the official journal. The fifth provides for the closing of the effects of the institutions. The sixth repeals all laws to the contrary. Under this act private elementary and secondary instruction are restrained. It is a matter of interest meanwhile to remark that most of the schools closed by this act will open, even if they have not already opened, under a lay teaching body which is nothing more or less than the former personnel in secular garb. The closing of the congregations, however, resulted in bringing private education, elementary and secondary, under the jurisdiction of the state.

An interesting study is being carried on by a commission of which M. Leon Bourgeois, former Minister of Education, is president, to inquire into the requirements and educational obli-

gations for abnormal children. The Commission is making an exhaustive investigation under the decree of October 4, 1904, and is establishing fundamental propositions.

It is difficult to characterize the various lines of evolution of instruction in France during recent years. Science profoundly impresses the department of teaching and demands services most important and profitable to the masses. This does not mean that the classical tradition has been abandoned or is to be retired in France in favor of research. French spirit still aims at the ideal and the development of the beautiful, and the pursuit of pure science has not ceased to be held in highest honor. The new plans for secondary instruction have invested the sciences, however, with new functions. M. Liard, vice-rector of the University of Paris, writes, "They will be the instruments of culture." Letters will continue as in the past the tried instructors impossible to be supplanted, but in the domain of the positive sciences there will be more effective work than in the past. The sciences will be ranked by the French among the humanities. Again, in the words of M. Liard, "Our countrymen, who are beyond all an idealistic race and deductive, have need of a great bath of realism. . . . On the whole the education of the French youth seems to have been too much directed to the abstract mathematics and not enough towards experimental science Often the spirit of our race has led our students by bounds to the highest generalities at once to treat deductively all items of knowledge. It is necessary then that education thru the experimental sciences become experimental and inductive."

Attention should be called to an item of interest to all which has frequently been overlooked. There have been established for some time frequent and profitable relations between the schools of France which are under the jurisdiction of the minister of public instruction and those of neighboring states. Foreigners are received as auxiliaries in the primary normal schools and in other establishments of secondary instruction. Reciprocally French teachers are sent to foreign schools, and this exchange, so advantageous from all points of view, is multiplying each year.

*England*

The educational energy of England has been devoted entirely to adapting the elementary and secondary schools to the provisions of the law of 1902. This law relates almost exclusively to the regular administration of schools, and the county councils, which became the local unit of supervision and administration, have assumed the power of the former boards with little friction, and with apparent success. The chief opposition to the law, as might have been anticipated from the great struggle which arose at the time of its passage, is in the application of local taxes to the support of church schools which remain substantially under private control. The necessity of accepting the conditions passively, as was predicted at the time of the passage of the act, has not been recognized, and the various religious sects outside of the established church have made a steady and firm resistance to the payment of taxes to be used for this purpose. Thousands of summonses have been issued by the courts to those refusing to pay the taxes, and unless the law is amended in this particular much confusion is likely to arise.

The administration of the new law is immensely superior to the procedure under the act of 1870, and if satisfactory adjustment can be made of the religious question, both the elementary and secondary schools will soon be on a highly satisfactory basis. The great distinction between American and English systems of elementary and secondary education is that the greater part of the money spent on education in England is derived from a central government grant supplanted by local taxes. As a result the central government exercises a preponderating influence on all work done in the schools. One of the main excellencies of the law is the co-ordination of elementary and secondary schools, which have heretofore worked independently of each other.

In 1903 a new education law was passed for the City of London which practically extended to the city the principal features of the general law of 1902. The historic London School Board, which has made such a magnificent record in

the thirty-five years of its existence and whose influence has been felt thru the length and breadth of England, has practically brought its work to a close. The opposition to the application of the law to the City of London arose quite as much from the sentiment over the thoro work and magnificent record of the old Board as for any other reason, but it is almost the unanimous opinion that the present policy is much better adapted to the present needs of London's development.

### *Sweden*

In May, 1904, the Swedish Riksdag decided upon a reform in regard to the secondary schools of Sweden, the most radical and important in their entire history. These schools are the direct continuation of the monastery, cathedral, and town schools, some of which have existed since the Middle Ages. As heretofore organized they have consisted of a continuous course of nine years, following a course of three years in the common schools.

The change authorized divides the secondary schools into a lower Modern school of six years and a higher Gymnasium of four years. The gymnasium, however, is not a direct continuation of the Modern school, but continues from its fifth class. The courses are based as before upon the three-year common-school course. The result of this change is that pupils have the option of taking the full six-year course of the Modern school, and if they are successful in the final examinations they are entitled to certain privileges such as being received as apprentices in the government telegraph or postal-service department. Coeducation is also allowed in these Modern schools and is important as being the first instance in which the government has authorized coeducational schools in secondary education. This decision was preceded by a very careful investigation of the results of coeducation particularly as conducted in the United States.

The other option is to leave the Modern school at the end of the fifth year and take the four-year gymnasium course, making the complete course for the student nine years. The four-year gymnasiums are also of two kinds, the Latin gymnasium

and the Modern gymnasium, and both are concluded by an entrance examination which admits to the University. The main difference in the gymnasiums is that in the former an opportunity is given to study Greek. An innovation is also allowed in introducing elective courses in the last two years of the gymnasium course. The most important change in the curriculum of the secondary schools is the abridgment of Latin and of Greek. Heretofore six years of Latin and four years of Greek have been given. Under the present arrangement four years of Latin and two years of Greek are prescribed. The tendency to force the classical languages into the background has been quite marked, and the present program reduces the time for the study of Latin one-half from that in vogue thirty years ago. At that time, also, 75 per cent. of the pupils in the last four years of the gymnasium took Latin, while at the present time 47 per cent. take this subject.

The most important administrative measure in connection with this reform of the secondary-school system is the establishment of a Superior Board of five members who will manage its affairs in place of the Ministry of Education and the Chapters of the Dioceses which have hitherto controlled them. Among the members of this board of five are the Hon. Carl von Friesen, head of the present Education Department; Professor Ernst Carlson, principal of the higher secondary school of Gothenberg; and Dr. N. G. W. Lagerstedt, recently the Royal Swedish Commissioner to the St. Louis Exposition.

### *Germany*

The Imperial rescript of the Emperor, acting however as the King of Prussia, which took effect in 1902, is the principal event in the educational world of Germany during the last four years. By this decree the leaving certificates from the Gymnasium, the Realgymnasium, and the Ober-realschulen were accepted for entrance to the university, a privilege heretofore enjoyed by the graduates of the Gymnasium alone. The Realgymnasium has one classical language, Latin, and two modern languages, French and English; the Ober-Realschulen has only the modern languages. The similarity of this action to cer-

tain tendencies in this country can readily be perceived. Thus far only a few of the other German states have shown any inclination to follow the example of Prussia, and the East German states have quite positively refused to order an equalization of the three kinds of institutions. The overwhelming influence of Prussia in matters educational will in time undoubtedly lead most of the states to similar action.

The academic degree has, during the various evolutions of the German university, become of little practical importance, except to those who intend to devote themselves to an academic career. It is possible to become a clergyman, a lawyer, a physician, or a teacher in high schools without possessing the baccalaureate degree. The large number of graduations which still take place every year under these conditions is accounted for by the consideration which the title enjoys in the public estimation and by the widespread partiality in Germany for titles in general.

The time-honored compulsory-education laws of Prussia are now being more strictly enforced than ever, and in 1901 out of a grand total of 5,754,000 children only 548 evaded attendance.

Keen to observe the necessity of training young men for commercial service in the German colonies and in the consular service in all parts of the world, a series of commercial high schools has been established in the last few years which treat economic science from the practical and strictly scientific point of view. The Commercial High School in Leipzig, founded in 1898, was the first institution of this kind, followed by the Municipal Commercial High School in Cologne, founded in 1900, and the Academy of Social and Commercial Science founded in Frankfort-on the-Main in 1901. The magnificent exhibit of these schools at the St. Louis Exposition is too recently in the minds of this audience to need extended comment.

Agricultural schools of various grades, including farming schools and agricultural winter schools, have grown with the utmost rapidity over the entire Empire. At the end of 1903 the schools of this class aggregated 256. Nearly all are sub-

sidized by the State or receive incomes from the provisional district and commune funds.

### *Belgium*

There have been no new laws of importance in Belgium concerning primary instruction, with the exception of a general increase in the salaries of teachers. The measures which have been undertaken by the administration have all tended toward the practical realization of what is considered in Belgium the imperative law of modern pedagogy, *l'école pour la vie*, which may be liberally translated as school training for the necessary work of life. To insure the introduction of this essential reform the central government has made four matters, or objective points, the subject of legislative measures and decrees.

(1) The thoro inspection of the curriculum on the part of the government.

(2) Creation of technical courses designed to meet local needs.

(3) Instruction and preparation of teachers in educational methods adapted to the future condition of pupils in professional life.

(4) Increase of work in social education.

One of the strongest means of securing the great results achieved in this method of education has been to enlist the aid of teachers in preparing dissertations for the general pedagogic conferences. The problems, which every teacher is compelled to solve, consist of the obligatory assembling of documents and materials necessary in laying out their lessons and in applying them to the course of instruction established by the government. The value of this collection, as exhibited by Belgium last year at St. Louis, is without parallel as a collection of historical educational documents and it forms the groundwork of concerted action in every part of the kingdom in the administration of primary education. Last year the government directed that each school send in treatises, statements, and collections upon a series of questions all of which are now being exploited at the Exposition at Liége. This work is considered of

the highest importance from the point of view of the ultimate preparation of the teaching staff, inasmuch as the collections in their educative power are so much greater as they have been made by the teacher aided by his pupils, and are composed of elements selected by them and by him from the territory of their own community and in the different workshops of their own locality.

The secondary education of Belgium has recently been carefully devoted to introducing into the instruction a spirit more practical and more businesslike and to systematic efforts to attract the children of the middle classes towards commercial careers in arts, industries, and trades. This tendency is manifested principally by the creation of new commercial sections in a certain number of secondary schools as well as under the ministerial decree of July 30, 1904, remodeling the program for instruction in drawing in the royal athenæums and the secondary schools of the kingdom. In the higher secondary schools with the same idea in view, and under the decree of September of the same year, modifications in the course in mathematics and commercial sciences have been authorized. The teaching of commercial accounting and of commercial arithmetic has received a new practical form, more complete and more in accordance with actual necessities. The Belgian government is neglecting none of the factors which can contribute, either in primary or secondary education, to a training for *l'école pour la vie*. On the other hand, it is important not to lose sight of the fact that public instruction ought not only to be directed in a national sense towards the needs of its own country, but at the same time towards matters concerning foreign nations in a way to sustain business relations with other countries and to develop their economic condition. With this particularly in view, a course in economic geography and the more thoro study of the English and German languages has been introduced into the curriculum.

In higher education there has been established in the University of Liége the degree of Geological Engineer by decree of August 24, 1900, with the design of procuring engineers with a geological knowledge more complete than has resulted

from study in the technical schools, and to furnish the equipment demanded by the development of scientific mining. The degree of Doctor of Arts and Archæology has also been established at Liége at the end of a course more complete than any that now exists either in Europe or America. This was established in 1903. The University of Gand established last November the degree of Engineer of Naval Construction, the first course in which will not be completed till the end of the academic year 1905-6. There have also been established in the two universities of Gand and Liége the degree of Licencié in Commercial Science and in Commercial and Consular Science. These have for their object the giving of a technical preparation to young men who are fitting themselves for commercial and industrial vocations, and particularly for consular careers. The University of Louvain has set up a School of Commerce and Consular Science and includes in its course of study a curriculum preparatory to a Doctorate in Geographical Science. The University of Brussels has opened a school of Commerce, which confers the degree of Engineer of Commerce. Both the universities of Louvain and Gand have established technical schools since 1900 and during the last few years the curriculums of both universities have been enriched by numerous chairs, among which are to be specially noted those of Oriental Literature, Egyptology, Assyriology, and many modern languages, chiefly Oriental. It has been a period of the utmost activity in university circles, and the efforts of the government in establishing faculties which shall meet literary and scientific demands of modern years has been effectively supplemented by private benefactions and foundations.

*Japan*

The educational system of Japan has moved along steadily under the Imperial Ordinance published in 1886, relating to universities, normal schools, elementary schools, and middle schools. The changes made since that time have been in the line of amendments, but the general features remain the same as then prescribed. Among the chief points of this revision were the establishment of the University Hall for research ex-

clusively in connection with the Imperial University; in the normal schools, the expenses of the pupils were to be paid by the schools and the subjects of study and the standard to be attained were prescribed by the Minister of State for Education; the expenses of the elementary schools were chiefly to be paid out of the tuition fees; the higher middle schools were established to prepare pupils for the University and also to give them professional education; the number of ordinary middle schools to be established in Fu and Ken (civil divisions corresponding to French prefectures) was limited to one for each. In 1890 the Imperial Ordinance revised the provision relating to elementary schools. By this revision the people were placed under obligation to send their children to school till they completed the ordinary elementary-school course of three or four years. In the famous speech made in 1890 the Emperor decreed that all instruction should be in line of fostering moral sensibility and the practical performance of human duties should be considered the chief object of elementary education; and that the spirit of loyalty and patriotism should especially be awakened. In 1893 regulations relating to supplementary schools for technical instruction were issued. In 1899 the Imperial Ordinance for the middle schools was revised, and among other things the limit of the number of these schools to be established in a civil district was removed. In the same year an Imperial decree urged upon the local authorities the establishment of higher schools for girls, and the local corporations, or town or village school-unions, were authorized to provide for such schools. In the year 1900 an Imperial Ordinance again revised the elementary-school code and abolished entirely the minimum three-year course. In view of obligatory attendance tuition fees were abolished and many changes made in the time and extent of the subjects pursued. In the same year also the medical departments of higher schools were reorganized under the name of Special Schools for Medicine. In 1903 an Imperial Ordinance prescribed regulations for special schools in which instruction is given in higher courses of arts and sciences. For the purpose of alleviating the burdens of higher education a special reserve for educa-

tional purposes, amounting to 10,000,000 yen, was set aside from the Chinese indemnity fund, the annual interest of which was to be distributed according to the proportion of children of school age attending during the previous year. In 1903 the total amount available for this distribution was 1,371,000 yen. Between 1900 and 1905 there has been marked increase in salaries paid teachers, and provisions have been made by the State for providing pensions to retired teachers. This pension is paid out of a special reserve fund established by each Ken and is formed by holding out one per cent. of the salaries of regular teachers. The National Treasury in addition grants a sum equal to one-half of the moneys paid by cities, towns, or villages.

In April, 1903, a system of state text-books was introduced, copyrights being reserved by the Department of Education. All text-books, except those for morals, Japanese history and geography, and Japanese readers, may be selected by the local governor from among those which are copyrighted by the Department of Education, or adopted by the Minister of State for Education. The books excepted are prescribed by the government.

A great advance has been made in the last few years in the matter of school equipment, and strict laws established as to the relative proportion of school grounds, school buildings, open-air gymnasiums, furnishing of dormitories, distance of school buildings from factories or unhealthy ground, size of classrooms, etc.

The great demand for trained teachers led to the establishment in 1902 of professional teachers' training institutes under the control of the Imperial University, by which teachers for middle and normal schools should be trained in the shortest possible time. The course of study extends over two years and is divided into five distinct classes. Five of these institutes are in operation and the first class was graduated in 1904.

A great advance has been made since 1900 in the establishment of higher schools including both those fitting for collegiate courses and universities, but more particularly the technical schools leading to technical and commercial industries

and agriculture. The traditional sentiment of the Japanese people formerly led young men to proceed to the university after finishing their course at the Middle school. The tremendous impulse given to industrial education after the Japan-China war has led the government to promote the establishment of industrial schools of various groups, and a strong tendency is now discernible among the young men to attend these schools.

In the field of higher education the establishment and growth of the Imperial University at Kyoto are most conspicuous, and at present it consists of a University Hall for original research and colleges of law, medicine, science, and engineering.

The establishment of the Kyoto Higher Technical School in 1902 as a school of industrial fine arts, was designed to introduce improvements into art industries and to place Japan in the forefront of artistic nations. An important commission was appointed in 1902 under the title of the National Language Investigation Committee. One of the important functions of this committee is to examine the relative advantages of the Kana and the Roman characters if phonograms are to be substituted for ideographs. In addition, the committee is delegated to recommend a simplification of the present style of writing and of the Kana orthography.

Another important committee on the history of Japan, working under the auspices of the University of Tokyo, has nearly completed its work, and the materials gathered are now being published under the name of "Japanese historical materials" and "Old Japanese documents." The total number of ancient documents compiled by the committee numbers more than 100,000.

## TENDENCIES

Even so cursory a presentation of foreign educational features as is contained in this paper must impress the reader with the thought that education on the continent is becoming intensely practical. Almost every innovation or change of policy, in whatever country, has for its object the more thoro training of the youth for his future trade or occupation. The line of cleavage between the training of the many and the train-

ing of the few, or between industrial training and cultural training, is becoming more and more distinct, and what Belgium has long taken as the dictum of its own educational policy, may with equal correctness be applied to Europe in general,—*l'école pour la vie*.

The history of education in the United States for the last century has shown it to be eminently practical, and peculiarly responsive to public demand. Its close relation and responsibility to the people preclude its taking any other form. It is not a thing apart from the public and for the benefit of a few as in the day of Egyptian priesthood, but rather is the instrument of the people in shaping the destiny of the country. Given, then, the trend of the development of this country, and there follows as its corollary the tendency of its education. The 20th century will be the scene of a struggle for commercial and industrial supremacy. The United States has entered this world conflict with all its energy, and the successes it has already gained have startled its competitors. The kind of education, therefore, of value to these changed conditions, and best likely to train our citizens for their future work, will be the kind of education to which our schools will perforce adapt themselves. These modifications fall naturally into three divisions: education for commerce, education for trades and other industries, and education for agriculture. Our educational leaders must solve the problem of how to adapt sufficient training in these lines to meet the demands of the age, and not destroy at the same time the balance which has been maintained in our curriculums with the more clearly cultural subjects, the broad and liberal training in which has been the source of our past strength and present power. This must not be sacrificed in the adjustment which must inevitably come, for to do so would be to remove the corner stone of the edifice.

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